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[JOHN TETLOW, Editor for October.]

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## *WRITTEN EXAMINATIONS.*

It is quite unnecessary at the present day, especially in an article addressed to teachers, to attempt to show the utility of written examinations. This may safely be assumed to be universally admitted. Those teachers who make any pretension to thoroughness of work and intelligence of method, consider them an indispensable instrumentality; and at regularly recurring intervals use them to test the quality of their own work and that of their pupils. This reliance on the evidence afforded by written examinations is not confined to any particular grade. The colleges use them as a means of regulating the admission of students to their courses of instruction, and, subsequently, of determining their qualifications for continuance in them; while the secondary schools find these tests equally useful at every stage of advancement. To such an extent indeed do educators value written examinations, that, other things being equal, those schools are generally held to be the best organized in which they occur most frequently.

But, while there is general agreement as to the utility of these exercises, there is a wide diversity, in practice at least, in the appreciation of their true nature and purpose. For each teacher unconsciously expresses his own individuality in the questions he prepares, and these, in consequence, reflect the ends he proposes to attain by his instruction, and the methods by which he thinks them attainable. Indeed, to a person experienced in school econ-

omy a teacher can offer no clearer exposition of his theories and methods of instruction than the bare examination questions which he prepares for his classes. Accordingly, the authorities of the higher schools, wishing to convey as briefly and clearly as possible to those of the lower, their views as to the kind of preliminary training their students shall receive, announce in their catalogues that copies of recent admission papers will be sent on application to any teacher; and instructors in the secondary schools, knowing that their professional standing depends on their success in meeting the requirements thus prescribed, eagerly avail themselves of this means of information. Not infrequently, too, the non-professional public, consulting these papers to see how far they reflect the just demands of society for the right education of its members, and failing to find there any sympathy with its convictions and aspirations, raises its voice in indignant remonstrance, and clamors for reform. No device which educators have employed for the dissemination of their views on educational questions have been productive of more good than the publication of examination papers; and to no other agency are we entitled to look with greater confidence for the ultimate solution of the educational problems which now claim our attention. They provoke searching investigation and fair-minded discussion. They carry silent conviction with them, or arouse vigorous and successful protest. In either case they result in reform.

As, therefore, examination papers are so plainly stamped with the individuality of the examiner as clearly to reveal to those conversant with their subject-matter his educational methods, there are as many types of questions as there are schools of theorizers on the subjects to which they refer, or as there are degrees of clearness in the mental operations of those whose theories agree. First, there is the type called leading, which, by a dexterous use of phraseology, presses the laws of association into its service, and succeeds in eliciting correct answers to stupid questions from pupils equally stupid. Then there is the startling, or sensational question, picked up in some statistical nook or cranny, and deposited for safe keeping by the examiner in those brain cells which he devotes to explosive compounds. Again, there is the catch, or puzzling question, put with no intention of testing the comprehension of a principle, but, so far as there is any purpose, to

see who in the class is quickest at guessing rebuses and riddles. There is, too, the intelligent, comprehensive question, the answer to which no text-book supplies, illustrating several principles, and yet not pointing by its phraseology to any one of them. The student who has done his work, not only with diligence, but with intelligence also, can answer it readily and briefly, while the mere memorizer is simply appalled by it. But it is needless to extend this catalogue. Teachers will recognize in the foregoing descriptions some of the familiar forms, and can probably add to them from their own stores of personal experience.

The types of question which have been designated leading, startling, and puzzling, do comparatively little harm when confined to individual classes, for the classes subjected to such training may, under the operation of promotions, come under the influence of more intelligent teachers, whose instruction will neutralize its effects. But when a school or college of established reputation and widely extended influence introduces such questions into its papers, and refuses to admit students to its courses of instruction, unless, by a high percentage of correct answers, they give satisfactory evidence of having been under the influence of this species of mental disease, the mischief becomes serious. Such institutions, dictating thus the character of the instruction to be given in all the schools which feed them, and guiding the intellectual activity of whole communities, inflict untold evil on those whom they profess to benefit. They should never forget that their responsibilities are as grave as their opportunities are magnificent. They may become a source of blessing or of blight throughout the entire area of their influence. It is to be hoped that the officers in our higher institutions to whom the preparation of examination papers for admission is assigned, appreciate the importance of the task they assume. There is no part of their duties which they can so ill afford to perform carelessly as this.

In view of the wide diversity of opinion which exists as to the true nature and purpose of written examinations, it will be interesting to analyze two papers, differing widely in character, but relating to the same subject, given, the first in 1873, and the second in 1871, to candidates for admission, at two of our prominent higher institutions of learning. It will be noticed that the first professes to be an examination in *Grammar*, the second an exam-

ination in *English*. This difference of caption, however, serves to indicate the views of the two examiners as to the scope and province of the study designated, rather than to divide this into two distinct branches, and should not prevent us from considering that the two examinations were intended to be on the same department of study. Indeed the two captions may be viewed as parts of the examination papers themselves, and as typical illustrations of the differences they present.

"EXAMINATION OF CANDIDATES IN GRAMMAR, JUNE 6, 1873.

1. What is a compound personal pronoun? Give a list of these pronouns. What classes of pronouns are used as substantives, and what as adjectives?
2. Define transitive verb, irregular verb, participle, conjugation. Give all the tense endings; the person endings. From what verbs are the following participles made, respectively: Laid, shed, set?
3. State fully the rule for forming the possessive case of a noun in the plural number. What three ideas does the possessive case connect with the name of an object?
4. Explain the difference between a preposition and a conjunction. What is a conjunctive adverb? Give an example of the last. Compare the adverb *far*.
5. So I have, though it seems you did not observe it. Parse etymologically."

ENTRANCE EXAMINATION IN ENGLISH, JUNE 5, 1871.

1. In the verses given out by dictation,
  - a. Parse *busily, highway, wore*.
  - b. Give all the prepositions — all the conjunctions.
2. Divide the lines into feet, and mark the accented syllables.
3. Give some account of your English studies at school. Give your own opinion as to your knowledge of English Grammar.
4. What English authors in prose or poetry are you really familiar with? What authors or parts of authors did you read in school?
5. Have you studied Rhetoric, and if so, in what manual? Have you studied Logic?



6. Have you studied Latin, and how far? Have you studied Greek?

10.\* In what century did Wordsworth live? Milton, Lord Bacon?

Who wrote *Ivanhoe*? The *Canterbury Tales*?

Let us note briefly the points of difference in these papers, and ascertain, if we can, what inferences they justify. The most obvious difference to be noted is, that the first is extremely limited in its range, while the second is almost unrestricted. In the first, there is not a single question that is not related to etymological parsing; answers to the first four questions, moreover, may be found ready to hand in almost all the popular text-books on English Grammar; and every candidate who had diligently memorized the definitions, rules, and lists in one of these, must have made a most excellent showing. The inference is irresistible that, in the opinion of the authorities of the institution from which this paper emanated, a thorough mastery of the definitions, rules, and lists contained in that part of an English grammar which treats of etymology is the true and only foundation of a rightly ordered course of literary study. The publication of these questions in the annual catalogue is a fair notice to teachers and candidates to govern themselves accordingly.

The second paper devotes one question only to etymological parsing, one to prosody, and the remainder to miscellaneous subjects. From the number and character of the questions strictly grammatical here presented, we infer that, in the opinion of the faculty of the second institution, only the leading features of etymology need receive attention; that prosody also should be studied, but that both together form only a part of the elementary knowledge required for a profitable course of literary study. Questions four and ten imply that candidates are expected to present themselves with a literary taste already partly formed, and with some positive knowledge of literature acquired through actual reading of the works of standard authors. To meet these requirements, schools must have libraries or access to libraries, and teachers must devise methods of bringing their pupils into

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\* The seventh, eighth, and ninth questions on this paper were in Geography, and as they took the place of a distinct paper on that subject, are, for the sake of simplicity, omitted here.

personal contact with literature. Question six recognizes the fact that one of the most interesting and profitable exercises in English — the study of definitions and synonymes through derivation — requires some knowledge of Latin and Greek, and extends to teachers who are ambitious to educate their scholars symmetrically as well as thoroughly, the encouraging assurance of sympathy and appreciation.

In justice to the institution which issued the first of the papers above quoted, it should be stated that the candidates were also required to "read aloud English prose in a standard work," and "to write a short, original letter." How far this added examination atones for the sins of omission and commission in the foregoing paper, each teacher will decide for himself. In our judgment no atonement is possible.

But dismissing, for the present, the *matter* contained in these papers, in other words, assuming the two kinds of knowledge they call for to be equally valuable, let us examine their *manner*, *i. e.* the method by which they seek to arrive at the knowledge of the pupil. For when once the subject-matter for study has been determined, there is a right way and a wrong way of teaching it; and, if any of these questions are badly prepared, the school from which they came is, in so far, giving aid and encouragement to poor teaching.

Now, in teaching any subject, the instructor should aim to make it, not only a means of mental discipline, but an acquisition of positive value. He should then secure to the pupil not only a thorough comprehension of its principles, but facility in their application also. For example, in English grammar the pupil should indeed be able to define a compound personal pronoun, a transitive verb, a participle, a preposition, and a conjunction, as the first of the above papers requires him to do; but he should also be able to do what is of more value than this. He should have tested his definitions so many times by concrete examples, both in the writings of others, and in his own written work, as to be able to rank any new word, whether of obvious or obscure relation, under its appropriate head; and, moreover, to illustrate these parts of speech in sentences of his own constructing. If this is the work of the teacher, the obvious duty of the examiner is to ascertain how far the work has been successfully accom-

plished, and, in doing so, to frame questions adapted to this end. This paper would have been improved then in method, if the examiner, instead of asking for definitions of a compound personal pronoun, a transitive verb, a participle, etc., had put his question in this form: "Write five sentences illustrating, in succession, a compound personal pronoun, a transitive verb, an irregular verb, a participle, and a conjunction; underline the illustration in each case, and show that it conforms to the definition of the part of speech which it illustrates."

Again, the examiner asks in the same paper, "What three ideas does the possessive case connect with the name of an object?" Immediately the boy who has been trained in parsing recalls the phraseology of the rule for the possessive: "A noun or pronoun limiting the meaning of another noun or pronoun by denoting possession, origin, or fitness, is put in the possessive case." Accordingly he writes, "Possession, origin, and fitness," and is credited with a perfect answer; and yet, what teacher does not know that such an answer would, in nine cases out of ten, be the result of verbal memory merely? If the candidates had been directed to illustrate in separate sentences the three ideas which the possessive case connects with the name of the object, a large proportion of the trained parsers would have utterly failed.

"State fully," says the examiner again, "the rule for forming the possessive case of a noun in the plural number." Here, too, the verbal memorizer, recalling with exactness the page, and the position on the page, of the rule in question, quotes it without omitting a syllable or misplacing a word. The same candidate would certainly have been less successful in his answer if the question had read thus: "Write sentences illustrating the possessive plural of the words *attorney*, *day*, *princess*, *woman*, *son-in-law*; also from these sentences construct others which shall express the same thought without possessives."

The difference between the original and the amended forms in the questions above criticised may be briefly stated thus: The former test the ability of the student to reproduce the phraseology of *text committed to memory*; the latter, his ability to *apply* the knowledge gained of *principles studied*. That the former have no place in education, while the latter are indispensable to it, will hardly be questioned.

Turning now to the second paper for a moment, let us see to what criticisms, if any, it is amenable. Questions one and two, like question five in the previous paper, are properly put, and, like that also, have to do with matter which, in elementary instruction in English, should certainly not be slighted. Questions three and four are excellent, though they are not satisfactorily supplemented by question ten. The latter, it is true, indicates to the teacher the class of authors with which the examiners would like to have future candidates made familiar ; but in doing so, it communicates information which would more appropriately be conveyed among the requisites for admission in the annual circular. Questions five and six are so framed as to elicit little more than affirmative or negative answers, and might, it would seem, have been almost as well omitted as introduced.

A comparison of two such papers as these, if instituted fifteen years ago, would probably have resulted favorably to the first. At the present time, indeed, it may possibly find vigorous defenders. But we are inclined to think that the second more nearly represents the best recent thought on the subject. Thinking persons get impatient nowadays when they hear glib etymological parsing from boys and girls who receive no instruction in writing and speaking English, and who have obtained no acquaintance, through reading, with the best models of composition. If we were asked to indicate the subjects best adapted to secure the end which an elementary course in English is designed to serve, viz. the acquisition of fluency and correctness in writing and speaking the English language, we should enumerate the following, none of which, it seems to us, can safely be neglected: Reading, Spelling, Elocution, Punctuation, Use of Capitals, Definition and Derivation of Words, Etymological Parsing, Analysis of Sentences, Recitation from Memory of Choice Selections, Explanation of Allusions, whether Biographical, Historical, or Mythological, in passages critically examined, the simple Figures of Etymology, Syntax, and Rhetoric, the Laws of Versification, Correction of False Syntax, and Written Composition. The passages selected for critical examination should be choice, but simple. Books, and passages from books, belonging to the standard English literature, and adapted to interest the pupil and cultivate a pure literary taste, should be



recommended for private reading, and written abstracts of their contents required. Frequently recurring rhetorical figures should be explained, and the characteristics of style produced by them noted. Errors in punctuation, in the forms and uses of words, and in the grammatical structure of sentences, should be corrected; and so much of theoretical grammar as is necessary for the appreciation of these corrections, should be taught.

We have thus indicated three important subjects, neither of which receives recognition in the foregoing papers, viz. the correction of false syntax, the study of the simpler figures of speech, and the occasional recitation of choice selections. The following questions, taken from examination papers given by the teacher of English grammar in our own school, suggest themselves in this connection as a suitable means of supplying the deficiencies above noted:—

1. Correct the following expressions, and give reasons for your corrections: I have just read "Tyndall's Forms of Water," which are certainly very interesting. It is I that is wrong, Sheridan was the last of his soldiers to leave the field. No man in the world has, or will be perfectly happy. O that this dry weather was over, and the blessed rain was falling! I took it to be she. Be careful who you trust. His expression sounded harshly.

2. Point out and explain the figures of etymology, syntax, or rhetoric in the following quotations:—

"The ling'ring star — 't was in the west."

"And Freedom shrieked when Kosciusko fell."

"In peace, children bury their parents; in war, parents bury their children."

3. From what poems are the following extracts taken:—

"Why do those cliffs of shadowy tint appear  
More sweet than all the landscape smiling near?  
'T is distance lends enchantment to the view,  
And robes the mountain in its azure hue."

"Ah me! the laurelled wreath that murder rears,  
Blood-nursed, and watered by the widow's tears,  
Seems not so foul, so tainted, and so dread,  
As waves the night shade round the Sceptic's head."

"'T is the sunset of life gives me mystical lore,  
And coming events cast their shadows before."

But it may be objected, while English grammar readily admits of a departure from the text-book in the preparation of examination questions, other subjects are much less easily managed. A glance at the following extracts from papers on various subjects will show that even those studies which deal with abstract reasoning, and those which present, for the most part, only statements of fact, may be made to yield abundant material for the kind of examination advocated in this article:—

1. *Geometry*. — Given a pentagon  $a b c d e$ , in which the side  $a b$  is 5, the side  $b c$  11, and the area 29. It is required to find the side  $b' c'$ , and the area, of another pentagon  $a' b' c' d' e'$ , similar to the first, in which  $a' b'$  equals 7; also to demonstrate the proposition on which the solution depends.

2. *Physics*. — A ray of light starts from a certain point and encounters successively a plane, a convex and a concave mirror, by each of which it is reflected; it then passes in succession through a plate of glass, a concave lens, and a convex lens. Describe the course of the ray and illustrate by a diagram.

3. *Astronomy*. — A disk six inches in diameter held  $18\frac{1}{2}$  yards from the eye will cover the disk of the moon; what would be the diameter of a disk which would cover it when held at a distance of  $27\frac{3}{4}$  yards? Compute by means of the latter the diameter of the moon in miles and its bulk in terms of the earth.

4. *Geology*. — A considerable portion of the surface of an elevated plateau has sunk so as to form a deep ravine. A geologist, on examining the strata laid bare on the sides of the ravine, makes discoveries as follows: In the lowest of the exposed strata he finds a portion of the skeleton of a reindeer; in a higher, limestone containing marine shells; still higher, the tooth of a wolf. Write out the past history of this locality, explaining and justifying all the inferences you draw.

In written examinations, then, whether for determining the qualifications of candidates for promotion, or for ascertaining the degree of proficiency attained at any stage in a school course, the *principles studied*, not the *text committed to memory*, should be made the test of excellence. So far as the nature of the subject taught admits, no question should be taken from the text-book used. The mark given should measure the *intelligence* more than the *diligence* of the pupil's work. The daily recitations, the subse-

quent reviews, and the final examinations, furnish each an indispensable element in the educating process; and each should be so managed as to supply the deficiencies of the other two. The careful and minute examination of details which must form a part of the daily recitations, renders this portion of the work somewhat fragmentary, and prevents the student from seeing clearly the relation of the parts to the whole; whereas the review, by bringing into proper connection and relationship the previously disconnected parts, enables him to survey the subject as a whole, with the parts in due subordination. The examination which follows both should be a repetition of neither, but should force him, during its continuance, to weigh, to compare, and to judge, using the two kinds of knowledge which he has acquired as materials.

J. T.

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*THE RHYTHMIC-MUSICAL THEORY OF GREEK  
VERSE.\**

WE doubt whether much resemblance in nerve-structure would be found between the modern American and the ancient Greek. The whole environment has changed. We need not adjust our conduct to past circumstances. The situation is no longer seen, and but faintly imagined. Even the scanty data by which the present re-thinks the past, are inaccessible or unavailable to the most. A few heaps of ruins, fragments of statues, scattered coins and gems, bits of pottery, a wheelbarrow load of manuscripts, the copies of copies of copies, not many antedating the tenth century, all more or less defaced, over-scribbled, perhaps, by an after age, needing microscope and chemicals to be read, without distinction in size of letters, without punctuation, without accents or breathings, with words unspaced and abbreviated, filled with falsehoods and contradictions,—from such materials we rebuild the past. With what success?

One question only concerns us here: How are the vocal utterances of the Greeks reproduced in America? We must know where we shall hear them. There are occasional Greek declama-

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\*J. H. H. Schmidt. — *Die Kunstformen der griechischen Poesie und ihre Bedeutung.* 1868-72. *Leitfaden in der Rhythmik und Metrik.* 1869.

tions or orations in our schools. In the class-rooms of our academies and colleges there is sometimes read a scrap of prose or verse ; we certainly do not care to listen to the repetition of paradigms. But what sounds shall we hear ? Perhaps the English pronunciation of the letters ; it may be that of the modern Greeks ; in another place that of some other European nation ; elsewhere a confusion of all these ; often, however, an approach to what may be called the Restored Ancient Pronunciation, and with this we shall be more content.

The quantification, however, will leave much to desire. We observe no difference between *τάσσε* and *πᾶσσε*, between *λώω* and *λίσσω*, and that principle of *pio o ly*, deducible from the nature of articulation, and confirmed by several phenomena in the ancient languages, that a syllable ending in a consonant is long, we find to be as utterly ignored in our schools as in the elaborate experiments in metre of Ellis and Tennyson. To render these imitations less imperfect, the grouping of letters in English must be violently changed, and made to conform to what was probably the ancient method. To say *Μῆνι-ν δὲ* is at variance with our past practice, but will have to be adopted if it was the usage of the Greeks in prose and verse. It is doubtful whether any admiration of the ancient metre, or conviction of the possibility of reviving them in English, could make one endure "invento-ro-lharmonies." In truth, as things are, the pride of accuracy in these matters is absurd. - At an English school, where all of the vowels and most of the consonants were systematically mispronounced and misgrouped, where the length or shortness of a vowel was only contemplated when it stood in the penult of a word of more than two syllables ; where doubts whether "accent a long penult" meant "emphasize it" had not yet penetrated, denunciations as for heinous sin were visited upon the luckless wight who "made a false quantity," as was curiously named the failure to place the stress of voice where the rules of the school, not the laws of the Latin language, required it to fall. And, O strictest of pedagogues, when your Primus asks you the quantity of *a* in *salio*, and you reply, "It is short, of course," is it not because you have in mind *Farre pio placant et saliente sale* ; or because your inward gaze is fixed on a page of the Gradus, and not at all because you have been in the habit of pronouncing



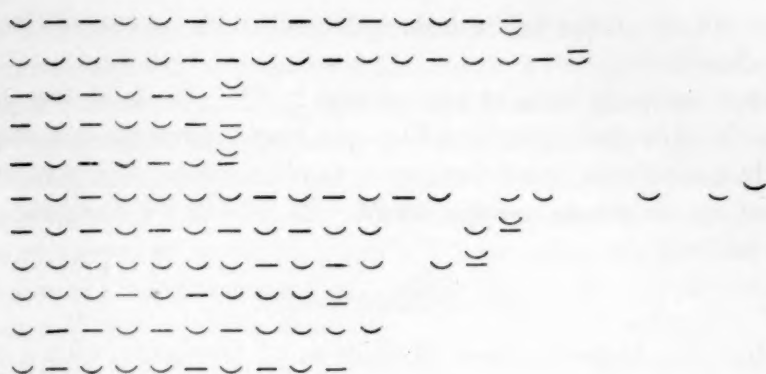
it short yourself? Observed rules would be unnecessary, and unobserved rules are worse than useless.

Perhaps it is different with the accent. You heard the recitation a moment ago; there was much talk of grave, acute, circumflex, of oxytone, perispome, etc. Another group of boys is at the blackboard; you observe how careful they are to write the accents, and what pains are taken to ensure correctness. But listen; they are beginning to read. Ah, you see, it is to discipline their minds that they remain ignorant of what they might have learned instead of this. Those painfully scrutinized marks are not regarded in practice at all. Wait, there is another boy — you are told he is fitting for Harvard — he is reading now a few lines of prose. He tramps over them and sets his voice down with all the weight of English emphasis on grave, acute, and circumflex alike. Let him turn to a page of Homer. You are now made aware that in almost the only Greek that is systematically read aloud, — verse, namely, — he makes no more account of the accent than did his predecessor. You rise and take your hat, repeating half consciously, *Wie nur dem Koff nicht alle Hoffnung schwindet*. The rest is drowned in the outcry of the class, who are now reciting in concert: "The accent of a long-vowelled penult before a short-vowelled ultima is circumflex." Should it turn out after all that these marks are the signs of inflexion and not of emphasis, it might be thought worth while either to employ them as such, or else to neglect them altogether. If we do not know, or cannot express their real force, it is not plain what harm would be done by omitting them entirely from our editions. The Greeks appear to have got along without them until the second century before our era, and not to have made much use of them afterwards; and, whatever their meaning, it is at all events very doubtful whether the marks of Aristophanes represented the usage of the Homeric, or even that of a later period, to say nothing of the uncertainties that attend the determination of the accent of many a word, however definitely and courageously it may be marked in the lexicons. Our editions are certainly not made more beautiful or intelligible by scattering these characters over a page already covered with a print sufficiently wearying to the eye.

Even were there no testimony, however defective and conflict-

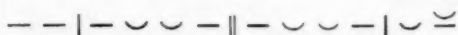
ing, to the contrary, who could believe that the Greeks had no accent in the English sense of the word? For, without accent, no rhythm; and rhythm is the common basis of music and verse. Among rude tribes it is often the sole distinctive characteristic of music, and is its only appreciable element to many among ourselves; while on some instruments, the drum for instance, no other part can be rendered. We can thus admit its general prevalence without seeking, with many, to trace it to some source in mind or body; or, with others, to suppose it originated as a useful aid to the march or dance; or to follow the German metrician in educing it from the forms of space and time.

Hardly can we doubt, then, not only that the Greeks had accent, but that their poetry was accentual, especially as there is reason to think that much of it was accompanied by music, much of it was sung or chanted, and perhaps none of it recited otherwise than in a sort of recitative. It is often said that, in distinction from modern verse, the verse of the ancients was quantitative. More regard was indeed paid, in adapting the words to the rhythm, to the metrical nature of the syllables; but the assertion by no means holds in the sense in which it appears to be usually understood, that ancient versification was merely an arrangement of certain long and short syllables. For in the first place it was not at all the time occupied in pronouncing a syllable that was considered, but since in song, and Greek verse was intended to be sung, the vowel gains prominence, attention was directed to the vowel and such consonants as, *following* it, affected its enunciation. Thus, we find the first syllable of *σπῆλαι* employed as short without exception, while *εῖ* is always long whenever the consonant cannot be carried over to the next word. The assonance of the Spanish ballads may perhaps illustrate a similar raising of the vowels above the general level of the words, and in the second place, if the ancient versification was merely quantitative, as the long-and-short theory regards it, what possible feature to admire can be found in the following metrical combinations? What conceivable principle can Pindar have followed in arranging them? To what purpose the labor of making strophe correspond to strophe, when no one could remember them for comparison?

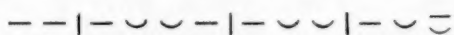


And how would Horace have read?

Maecenas, atavis edète regibus, etc? Boys are required to learn and say that it is the *Metrum Asclepiadeum Primum*, μονόκωλον, μονόστροφον, consisting of a *versus Asclepiadeus minor*, and that this verse is a *versus choriambicus trimeter catalectus in pyrrhichium aut iambum*, with a basis, which in Horace is always a spondee, and with a cæsure after the first choriambus. According to this, the arrangement is as follows:—



Others will have it thus :



But really what ground is there for one of these divisions more than for the other? Or why is our choice restricted to these two? Why not



Or



Or, in short, any other of the many possible modes of separating the verse into "feet"?

How can one ever read, much more sing, verses of such disparate measures? Or are not the "feet" measures? A clumsy device perhaps for describing sequences of syllables. And how do those who see in πόδες a hint that Greek verse in its origin was an accompaniment of dancing and marching, represent to themselves the early Hellenic saltation and progression? Darwinism

is not usually suspected in those addicted to the perusal of Greek tragedies.

What unity do such verses present? Only look at the choruses in different editions. The gardener's triumph is a shrub that bears leaves of every variety, — maple, cactus, palm, elm, fern, potato, etc., — *risum teneatis, amici*. In Woolsey's *Antigone*, p. 138, we find

$$966-976=977-987.$$

Verse 1. Logæed, dact. (3 dactyls,  $1\frac{1}{2}$  trochees) with a tribrachie basis.

2. Dactyl. trimeter catalect. in dissyllabum, with basis followed by a cretic.

3. Choriamb, dimeter with basis.

And so it goes on through the whole, the strangest commixture of dactyls, trochees, choriamb, tribrachs, iambics, antispasts, etc. Why any Greek prose could not be broken down into similar lines and made into equally enjoyable choruses, as far as the form is concerned, we do not know that any one has ever satisfactorily explained.

Clearly, then, if there was no rhythm in Greek verse, there was very little order of any kind. It is not found in the recurrence of syllables, whether long or short, "accented" or "unaccented," rhymed or unrhymed; and we might well despair of bringing a *cosmos* out of the *chaos* of verses, if the hypothesis of a rhythmical structure did not harmonize the facts. This hypothesis follows naturally from assuming that ancient poetry was intended to be sung, and in its application leads us to conclude that the stress of voice in Greek fell by preference on the long syllables, and that, calling a short syllable the equivalent of an eighth note, the long syllable had usually the value of two, but might, in definite positions, have that of three, four, and rarely five eighths; sometimes, however, it could be employed with an eighth note, while the short admitted the fourth, and, at times, the sixteenth note. No further license was permitted, nor did the words ever become a mere vehicle for notes of any duration. Poet and composer were one, and music and verse were twin-born of the same sentiment that shaped the thought of the artist and guided the motions of the chorus.



If a definite system of rhythms can be exhibited ; if principles can be established for adapting the metre to the rhythm and realizing the rhythm in the words ; if the results shall not merely make a fair show on paper, but approve themselves to our ear, to our taste, and, traced to their consequences, shall disclose everywhere regularity and beauty ; shall suggest some idea of the nature of the music to which the words were sung, and afford some glimpse of the movements of the chorus in the accompanying dance ; shall reveal the meanings of the different forms, the harmony between the metrical schemes and the sense of the words, and shall accomplish all this without violence to the best authorized texts, without arbitrary rules, without subsidiary hypothesis, — must we not welcome such a system, if only as a relief from verbal substitutes for ignorance ; if only as a barrier against modern macaronics, hexameters, Sapphics, Galliambics, that our learned poets so much affect ; how much more then as in itself a manifestation of beauty, a source of delight, a type of excellence ?

Criteria for the rhythmical constitution of a given text are found in the sum total of the metrical indications, the possible punctuation, the ending of words, pauses, the *syllaba anceps*, the hiatus, the possibility of equalizing the measures, symmetry of structure and correspondence of parts, the sense of the passage, and many other positive characteristics, while negatively the legitimacy of the hypothesis is attested by its inextensibility to prose.

Let us now proceed to exemplify the nature of the rhythmic-musical theory in its application to the more frequent forms of verse, merely premising that a bar shows that the next note is accented ; that by bars a rhythm is divided into equal parts, called measures ; that an initial, unaccented portion of a rhythm, necessarily shorter than a measure, is named *anacrusis* ; that the *accented* part of a measure is styled *thesis*, the *unaccented* part *arsis*. Thus, in the following from Swinburne's "Atalanta," we have four alternately-corresponding verses of four measures each :—

" When the | hounds of | spring are on | winter's | traces,  
The | mother of | months in | meadow or | plain  
| Fills the | shadows and | windy | places  
With | lisp of | leaves and | ripple of | rain."

A dactyl is defined to be a  $\frac{4}{8}$  measure, with weak secondary accent. The definition, it will be observed, is purely rhythmical. In music the measure might be filled out by a variety of notes. How can it be manifested by the syllables of the Greek language? With regard to length alone, the most obvious combinations are the following:—

1. — —; 2. — ◡ ◡; 3. ◡ — ◡; 4. ◡ ◡ ◡ ◡; 5. ◡ ◡ —.

The third, fourth, and fifth are excluded by the principle that the accent falls on a long syllable. The first comes in conflict with the requirement that the secondary accent should be weak; for, if the arsis as well as the thesis should consist of a long syllable, it is plain that the inequality between the accents of the two parts would be much less than if the former were made up of two shorts. Still, when the sequence *long-short-short* occurs with sufficient frequency to indicate clearly the nature of the measure, the grouping *long-long* is admissible, though we must guard ourselves against calling it a spondee. The spondee in this system is a  $\frac{2}{4}$  measure with strong secondary accent. Of course the combination of syllables by which it would be realized is *long-long*, though *long-short-short* and even other sets are allowed. Frequency of association has transferred the name that pertains to the measure in the rhythm to a mere succession of syllables; but, as it is desirable to have some means of designating the latter, we might employ the terms *metre-spondee* and *metre-dactyl* in distinction from the *rhythm-spondee* and *rhythm-dactyl* as above defined.

The measures of a composition do not simply follow one another without distinction between them, but are segregated into groups called phrases. In dactyls a phrase seems never to have exceeded five measures, and even such a group was usually too heavy to sustain its own weight, too long to be apprehended as a whole, and accordingly broke up into parts. These parts became in their turn phrases, the whole now receiving the name of verse. Of course the demarcation of verse from verse, as being groups of groups, must be more distinct than that of phrase from phrase. Thus in the rhythm we are about to examine, the verses are prevented from running together into a formless whole by the peculiar constitution of the penultimate and final measures.

A dactylic hexameter consists, as the name implies, of six dactylic measures, and, as it exceeds the possible limits of a single phrase, falls apart into two phrases, each containing the same number of accents and related to each other by the *cæsura*, the nature of which is to be presently described. When two phrases are united in a verse, either the former will end with a full measure, in which case the second begins with an accent; or the former will end *in* a measure, and then the latter will begin with an unaccented syllable of this measure, its *arsis* forming the *anacrusis* of the second phrase. These two relations are called respectively *diæresis* and *cæsura*. *Lehrs* has sought to show that such is the nature of the rhythm in the hexameter as to require the *cæsura* to divide it into two parts of three accents each, even when no word ends in the third measure. Many, however, hold that there are hexameters of three parts with two accents each and of two parts with four accents in the former, and two in the latter (the so-called *Bucolic cæsura*; better, *diæresis*); and it is claimed that each kind has an appropriate function. Whatever may be said of this, there exists a distinct form of the hexameter, of frequent occurrence, in which the third measure is filled out by the prolongation of one long syllable so as to give it the value of a half-note, and in which the sixth measure consists likewise of a single syllable, either prolonged to the requisite length or followed by the pause, or rest, which is only allowable at the end of a verse. This is the *Elegiac Hexameter*, for it is better to discontinue the use of the name by which this verse is commonly known. Few will seek to establish more distinct varieties of the Greek hexameter than we have mentioned, or will regard the sixteen *cæsuras* of *Hermann* as of more importance than would be a classification of the lines according to their initial letters.

Much ingenuity has been exercised in justifying assumed differences of expression, based on the relative proportion in the verse of metric dactyls and spondees. But, as all measures are of the same length, whatever the contents, it is doubtful whether *Homer*, at least, attaches any importance to these distinctions. With the Roman poets it may be different, if *Schmidt's* view of the Latin hexameter is correct. It differs, according to him, from the Greek, in having the measures made up of what are called *Cyclic Dactyls* and *Irrational Trochees*; in a word, it is to

be read not in  $\frac{4}{8}$  but in  $\frac{3}{8}$  time. In the Cyclic Dactyl, the long has the duration of a dotted eighth note, the first short diminishing to the value of a sixteenth note, while the second short with its usual time completes the measure. The second long of the Irrational Trochee is equivalent to a short, or nearly so ; for it is of course understood that exact mathematical relations do not obtain here.

The nature of the Greek metres might be made further evident by considering, as, with the requisite space, we had intended, the question of their revival in English. It is, however, time to close, though we cannot refrain from indicating, for the better satisfaction of our readers, how the rhythmic musical theory would divide the already quoted verse of Horace. The old practice was indeed better than the theory ; and, separate it as might the metricians, and even Horace himself, into choriambes, — that curious Greek measure in  $\frac{3}{4}$  time, of infrequent occurrence and expressive of extreme indignation or abhorrence, — it is doubtful whether they read, recited, declaimed, or sung the verse, otherwise than in  $\frac{3}{8}$  time, as exhibited in the following scheme, in which no measure is introduced that is not readily intelligible from what has already been stated. It will be seen, too, that any other division either destroys the symmetry of the line, or requires a short syllable to be accented: *Mæce | nas ata - | vis || edite | regi - | bus. Mæcene, sprung from a race, kings in an olden age.*

A. I.



# VERMONT DEPARTMENT.

H. T. FULLER, EDITOR.

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## *THE CULTURE NEEDED BY THE TEACHER.*

THROUGH all the ages, books, not men, have been the world's great teachers. A nation's literature is not more the measure of its culture than the means to it. Long before Lord Brougham made the discovery that the schoolmaster was abroad in the land, his lordship had sat reverently at the feet of these great silent teachers of the past. The writings of Socrates, of Plato, of Aristotle, were but the embalment of their own living souls — treasured up on purpose to a life beyond life. I mean no disrespect to the great nobleman's schoolmaster, nor to these his successors of gentler mould who have shouldered him out of the race, — I mean, rather, that the teacher's work is less a work of education than a work preliminary and preparatory to it. The object of school, college, or university is, not so much to educate, as to teach us how we may educate ourselves. I mean no disparagement to the New England common school system, — planted in Christian faith, fostered and nurtured by the prayers of those sturdy souls who wrestled with the Almighty for the blessings which they have transmitted to us. With prophetic eye they saw in the dim future what we ought now to feel more deeply in its full fruition, that a representative government must rest upon the broad basis of intelligence and virtue, because the people is the government, and ignorance in them reaches in its leprous influence to every fibre and function of the state, stagnates the currents of health, palsies the right arm of labor, and pollutes the fountains of justice. But what force is there in arithmetic or geography or spelling to stimulate virtue or repress vice? One can hardly square his conduct by involution. Nor are the principles of grammar transfused with any moral element. It is not what is learned in the school that makes the intelligent and virtuous citizen. This simply fits us out with the necessary mental implements for the work we have to perform in life and for the pursuit of higher knowledge. Even in its best estate the school leaves the boundless realms of knowledge almost untouched and unexplored. It is not enough that our children are trained up in an ascending series of good schools. These but commence culture. They give some scraps of practical knowledge, some discipline, — they

do not furnish a generous and liberal culture. Haply they may create a taste for reading and a relish for mental pleasures ; then books come in to finish the work. These supplement the school. These diffuse that intelligence which is essential to the stability of free government. These, moreover, are not simply a means of education and culture. They are at once an arsenal and an armory. Books are weapons either for war or for self-defence, says Lord Lytton. And this truth was never more emphatically verified than when educated Germany was devastating with fire and sword ignorant, impotent France. In this great Franco-German war, God was writing in characters of blood, illumined by fire, all over the sunny plains of France, that the nations might read — the great fact that a people's strength and security depend upon the trained and well directed intelligence of its masses ; that moral and intellectual qualities in the nation, as in the individual, are the only elements of power ; and that a heartless, soulless, Godless civilization is utterly without stability. For the sake of their relation to the state, if for nothing more, we plead for the broadest culture for teachers. They stand at

“ The entry of the city ;  
At the coming in at the doors.”

But, for the most part, those who teach, limited in their means and opportunities for preparation, often supporting themselves the while, are compelled to confine their studies exclusively to the branches required to be taught. Now to teach anything well, one must know much more than he is required to teach. Indeed, to know one thing well, one must know many other things. There is no position in life where one can utilize all his powers, all his acquirements, and all his accomplishments, as in teaching.

It is evident, then, that no high standard of excellence will be attained, unless there be some growth in the grace of teaching. As the world goes, teaching is not largely an educative process. After the first, about as much culture comes from it as from the conjugation of a verb, or repeating the multiplication table. Culture, if it comes at all, will come from something outside of the labor in the school-room ; from some premeditated and organized plan of reading and study. We must put ourselves to school to Literature. All her temples are open to us. She invites us to sit in her alcoves and gather wisdom and sweetness without money and without price. I wish we could feel more the duty and the utility of availing ourselves of all the opportunities for this which lie about us.

One might almost paraphrase the ununctious formula of the West-

minster divines, and say the chief end of man is to cultivate himself, without sin of omission or guilt of heterodoxy. Of course by such cultivation is meant here the development of all the faculties and capabilities with which we are endowed. And how better can one glorify and enjoy his Maker! Indeed, how else can he do this? Let me urge upon teachers the importance of some judicious and systematic plan of reading; some general and excursive foraging in those fields of literature where ripens the harvests of the thought of ages.

But happily for us, man is not all intellect. Every mental action is prompted and sustained by some emotion; and we cannot, if we would, separate the moral and emotional from the intellectual. The best intellectual culture is, therefore, impossible without the cultivation of the æsthetic and the moral faculties. We should not, therefore, confine our reading to that field of literature where is found only what in slang phrase has been termed "bread and butter knowledge." It is written, man shall not live by bread alone. And I ween had God not designed us to cultivate the imagination and æsthetic faculties, He would never have given them to us; for he has observed the strictest economy in all His creation. Nothing is thrown away. Browning says,

"Be sure God ne'er desires to waste the strength  
He deigns impart."

And surely there comes no higher satisfaction to any man than from the consciousness that he is acting in concert with the Almighty. Instincts are said to be the finger-pointings of Providence. Have we no desire, no aspiration beyond the narrow scope of our work-day existence? Said Mr. Webster, had man been so made as to desire nothing, he would have wanted everything worth possessing. The material is always inferior, and in God's design subservient to the spiritual. He did not put us here merely to eat, drink, and sleep. He put us here to cultivate our higher faculties and to fit ourselves for more intimate communion with Him and those beings around Him which are made but little higher than the possibilities of humanity. To "get on" is needful; but, while getting on and having got on there is other and higher work to do. A living, while it must be the first, should be the least and lowest object of desire. It is but the foundation on which to build the graces, the beauties, and the crowning glory of life. We cannot guiltlessly sacrifice our immortal powers to our animal propensities.

"Thyself and thy belongings  
Are not thine own; so prosper as to waste  
Thyself upon thy virtues, they on thee."

Heaven doth with us as we with torches do,  
Not light them for themselves; for, if our virtues  
Did not go forth of us, 't were all alike,  
As if we had them not. Spirits are not finely touched  
But to fine issues; nor Nature ever lends  
The smallest scruple of her excellence;  
But, like a thrifty goddess, she determines  
Herself the glory of a creditor,  
Both thanks and use."

Our feelings and emotions as well as our intellects have their wants and their capabilities. They, no less than the other, are sources both of pleasure and power. It is the soul element which ranks man but little lower than the angels. The purely sensuous man is at best but a piece of "painted, aching clay." We must kindle the intellectual, the emotional, and the moral to make a Newton, a Shakespeare, or a Washington.

I know the tenacity with which the average American mind clings to what is called the practical view of education. Always too strong, the feeling has been intensified by the recent beneficent ministrations of physical science which has stepped to supplant brute force, and has taught us how to shift our burdens from our own shoulders upon the forces of nature. Nor is this to be wondered at; for think what the human brain acting through the mechanic arts has done towards relieving the burdens of humanity, even within our own memory. How much less time is consumed in supplying human wants; how to the necessities of life have been added the comforts, and to the comforts the luxuries. Who dares affirm that this has not come about in God's good time, for the very purpose that we may have leisure for cultivating other than the practical side of our humanity? Little wonder, however, that the man who earns his bread by the sweat of his brow should desire to approach education upon its practical side. But he often does not know that he is indebted to the very faculty deemed most useless for the lightening of his life's burdens and the securing of his material prosperity.

In the writings of Sir Benjamin Brodie, formerly President of the Royal Society, I find a glowing yet worthy tribute to one of the most suspected of the useless faculties. He calls the imagination that wonderful faculty which, left to ramble uncontrolled, leads us astray into the wilderness of perplexities and errors, to a land of mists and shadows, but which, properly controlled by cultivation and reflection, becomes the noblest attribute of man, the source of poetic genius, the instrument of discovery in science without the aid of which Newton could



never have invented fluxions, nor Davy have decomposed the earths and alkalies; nor would Columbus have found another Continent. Prof. Tyndall, in his address upon the scientific use of the imagination, says it is the faculty which lightens the darkness which surrounds the world of the senses. Newton's passage from a falling apple to a falling moon was at the outset only a leap of the imagination.

Pure intellectual culture has too great prominence in our systems of education. If we do not educate the head too much, at least we educate the heart too little. It is what enters the soul, which works in us and abides with us and becomes part and parcel of us. What enters the brain does not change the man. It is not the knowing of the fact, nor the understanding of the principle, which can change the relations between man and his Maker. It is the fresh, warm feelings and emotions, that have their glow from the heart, which can do this, — these draw us nearer to Heaven. *Feeling* is the man. It is this which makes us peculiar and gives us individuality. It is through the emotions that we attain the finest and deepest culture of our spiritual being. Twenty centuries ago a profound philosopher said "tragic poetry purifies our feelings through terror and pity"; but there are holier emotions than these, — those that kindle sublimer thoughts and work kindlier results.

I wish every teacher could be made to feel that he owes it to his pupils to bring them into personal contact with an æsthetic and moral culture in himself; for education in such matters as constitute refinement can only be imbibed from those who have refined tastes. It is a trite saying that practice is better than precept; or, "as is the mother so is the child," which Horace poetically expresses, "the mother's virtues in the daughters shine"; but it is true, and it is as true of the teacher as of the parent. It is what some teachers wofully forget, and some others seem never to have learned. It is accounted for, this sober discretion, this sweet temper, this kindly grace of spirit, and all else that rounds out the soul to fulness, — not altogether by hereditary transmission. It comes as much from that silent, unconscious tuition which cannot be restrained, which radiates from one's spiritual being. Such a character as Washington's was possible only under the tuition of such a mother as was Washington's; but hardly less could England have had such a Stanley, or many another like him, but for the moulding of Arnold of Rugby. Do we teachers have as broad and high an ideal of character as did Dr. Arnold? and, furthermore, do we labor as assiduously as did he to realize it both in our scholars and in ourselves?

R.

## INTELLIGENCE.

CASTLETON. — The Seminary and Normal School opened Thursday, Sept. 3. Mr. E. J. Hyde is Principal of the Seminary; and the Normal School is under the immediate charge of Miss J. B. Bromley. The other teachers are R. E. Maranville, G. A. Mietzke (of vocal music), and Misses Laura E. Brown, F. S. Burt, and Ten Broeck.

DERBY Academy has about one hundred students.

GLOVER. — Orleans Liberal Institute is under charge of Mr. George Deland.

BURLINGTON. — The public schools of this city opened Sept. 7 with a good attendance. The High and Grammar Schools have very few vacant seats, and the attendance at the new buildings shows the urgent necessity that existed for them. The following is a list of teachers for the present year: Charles S. Halsey, Principal High School; Laura H. Brownell, Kittie Hagar, Louise A. Dennison, Assistants. Mrs. Jennie M. Wyatt, Principal Grammar School; Mary E. Wells, Helen C. Converse, Jennie M. Carter, Assistants. Mary B. Stiles, Principal Pine Street Intermediate; Sarah A. Pope, Katie Miller, Assistants. Alice V. Walker, Principal Pomeroy Intermediate; Alice S. Washburn, Assistant. Libbie M. Frink, Principal Adams Intermediate; Florence J. Beecher, Assistant. Mary E. Collins, Teacher North Street Intermediate. Eva E. Sallies, Principal Pine Street Primary; Florence Partridge, Nellie Townsend, Assistants. Amelia Brown, Principal Pomeroy Primary; Mary O. Woods, Assistant. Maria A. McWeeney, Principal Adams Primary; Anna Smith, Assistant. Carrie L. Kimball, Principal North Street Primary; Addie J. Taft, Assistant. Sara A. Enwright, Principal Falls School; Jennie Mathews, Assistant. Nettie B. George, Teacher North Avenue. Ruth A. Hodgkins, Teacher Ungraded School and temporary supply. Andrew J. Phillips, Teacher of Music in all the schools.

ST. ALBANS. — The following are the new teachers for the current year: S. W. Landon, A. B., Academic Department. Miss E. M. Benedict, Principal of Intermediate Department; Misses Ladd, Janes, and Currie, Assistants. In the Primary Department, Miss Gilson takes the place of Miss Perley. On Elm Street, the new Assistants are Miss Sarah Whitehead and Miss Ellen Haight.

LUDLOW. — The fall term of Black River Academy opened with one hundred and fifty students. Miss Mary Piece, who has ably filled the position of Preceptress in the Academy for the last three years, has been called to a position as Teacher of Mathematics and Latin in Monticello Seminary. Her place is filled by Miss K. A. Labaree, of Charlestown, N. H., who for several years has taught with much acceptance in Springfield, Vt.

MIDDLEBURY. — The College Term opened Thursday, Sept. 3, with a Freshmen Class of seventeen. Prof. Clark has charge of the Senior Class.

MONTPELIER. — The number of students in attendance at the Seminary is one hundred and fifteen. Principal White has entered upon his work, which, if properly seconded by the Trustees, promises success. - J. Edward Miller, of South Hadley, Mass., has been elected Principal of the High School, vice E. W. Westgate.

BARRE. — The Fall Term of Goddard Seminary began Aug. 26. Number of students, eighty. Henry Priest is Principal; B. P. Sparrow, Teacher of Natural Science; and Miss A. A. Ballou, Preceptress.

Barre Academy has one hundred and thirty students, of whom sixty-five are in Latin. Dr. Spaulding is in the front rank of successful instructors.

SPRINGFIELD. — Miss Emma Preston takes charge of the Charlestown (N. H.) Grammar School. Her experience in Springfield and Windsor are guarantees of her success in her new position. The Springfield schools opened Sept. 1. Henry L. Slack remains in charge of High School.

RANDOLPH. — The Normal School began its year with one hundred and forty students.

ST. JOHNSBURY Academy begins its second year of work since its new buildings were ready for occupancy, with two hundred and twenty scholars. Two teachers have been added to the corps, — Edward D. Mason, a graduate of Dartmouth in 1872, and Miss Susie A. Holbrook, of the last class of the Academy. Miss Carrie C. Ross teaches a select school at Mercer, Pa., and Miss Alma I. Galbraith, also of the last class at the Academy, is teaching in the Intermediate School on Summer Street, St. Johnsbury.

## RESIDENT EDITOR'S DEPARTMENT.

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### MR. EDITOR :

Give me a little space, please, not to reply to "H. F. H.,"—oh no, not that, but to account for some things which appear in his review of the paper I read before the meeting of superintendents last May. I say to account for *some* things, for other some seem to me unaccountable. I have not spent the intervening month since the rejoinder in caring for the dead and dying after such a charge; but as there was intimation of more to come, and as I could form no possible idea of what it might be, I thought I would wait for the remainder.

I exceedingly dislike a controversy<sup>\*</sup> in print, and especially with as good a fellow as "H. F. H.," and I do not propose to engage in one. I wish merely to correct two or three impressions, and so account for a few things passed upon in his article.

When writing my paper, I had much less reference to "H. F. H." than he supposes. When I said in the first paragraph that "the query was raised whether children of the ages of those in our schools are capable of understanding arithmetic," also that "the fear was expressed that we were requiring more of them than they can perform," I had in mind a paper presented by another man. In what I said with reference to *time*, I had his remarks more in mind. In the part of my paper pertaining to "the ability of the children," I was not writing as to *his* position, and this may account for the fact that I "both mis-stated it and understated it,"—that is, I *was not stating* it. It seems to be another instance of "the wrong boy."

Again, when I said that in "other educational meetings, and from other sources something of the same nature has appeared," I referred to a meeting of another association, and to a discussion at which "H. F. H." was not present, in which ground was taken, if I correctly understood it, by a noted teacher and author of a series of arithmetics, against the study, to any great extent, of what is commonly termed intellectual arithmetic. Other prominent educators hold the same view; but I did not understand that they were included among those referred to by him when he says modestly, "My lead in the premises has had a quite extensive following." I believe most fully in mental arithmetic; and that when the unnatural divorce between mental and practical arithmetic, the putting "asunder what God has joined together" is annulled, it will be so taught as to be of great value to the student through his whole course of mathematics, and to the man in business life; and therefore without reference to "H. F. H.'s" "facts and reasoning," but with reference to the position taken by others, I brought in "a little of the 'milk for babes' on the subject, such as is contained in the first few pages of 'Colburn's First Lessons,'" and this may account for the "fog on the surface of the stream emptying into Lake Superior," if not for that on New Bedford Harbor.

Again, H. F. H. seems to think that I was pleading for "explanations of the abstract theory of numbers, and of the processes by which the slate work was to be performed," when, as a matter of fact, I did not say one word about these. That he should so understand me is one of the unaccountable things. I said, principally with reference to the lack of *time*, "the remedy proposed seems to be to teach less the philosophy, and more the processes of arith-



metic. With much that is stated I am in full sympathy. I have no doubt that sometimes the philosophy is too exclusively taught, and the processes insufficiently." The things contrasted here are the *philosophy* of arithmetic and the *processes* of arithmetic, not a word is said about the philosophy of the processes. More than that, in the last paragraph of my paper, a part not yet reviewed, I said that I would have a child taught to add and subtract, multiply and divide before he begins to study arithmetic, even as early as the second year of his school life; that I would have an exercise, purely as an exercise, in such work every day, if possible, through his grammar school course. I had in mind their slate and blackboard exercises, so as to secure facility and correctness, with no reference to the *philosophy* of the processes. It was only in this last paragraph that I had any reference to slate work; and therefore, when "H. F. H." says, as he does in closing, "I ask again as I have asked already, what considerable bearing can a range of such simple, elementary, mental problems have upon a discussion of the methods of slate work practised in our schools," I answer that, after due consideration of a question so important as to be worthy of repetition, I think they have no bearing — that if they have any, it must be by accident, for I was not writing "upon slate work practised in our schools."

E. A. H.

FITCHBURG, Sept. 5, 1874.

### HOW TO TEACH LANGUAGES

*So that the Pupils shall Gain the greatest Amount of Knowledge in the least time without Overwork.*

#### METHOD AND DETAILS TO THIRD CASE.

1. Lesson. Learn the Greek alphabet and pronounce phonetically.
2. " Review and practice. Accents, learn their forms, names, and relative positions.
3. " 1st declension of nouns. Leave out contract nouns.
4. " 2d declension of nouns in os and ox only.
5. " 3d declension of nouns. Leave out contract nouns.
6. " Review declensions.
7. " Declension and regular comparison of adjectives.
8. " Verb *εἰμι* I am.
9. " Pronouns *ὅς, οὗτος*.
10. " Regular verb. Present Infinitive. Present, Future. and Aorist Indicative active.
11. " Imperfect, Perfect, and Pluperfect active; Augment and reduplication.
12. " Present and Imperfect passive and middle Future and Aorist middle.
13. " Perfect, Pluperfect, passive and middle Aorist and Future passive. Prepare Xenophon's Anabasis, I Book, I chapter, two sentences.

Time of recitation one hour.

Time devoted by the pupils to the study of each lesson, two hours.

Before a new lesson is assigned the lesson preceding it must be carefully reviewed, and the inflection as far as studied is to be continually practised.

I should go into details a little more, if it were necessary. What I indicated will suffice to show the way of proceeding. Let any one try it and he will see that the pupils can begin to read Xenophon with profit after twelve

lessons, provided there is enthusiasm and vigorous activity in the recitation-room on the part of the teacher, and faithful study on the part of the pupils. As the mind remembers easily by analogy and comparison, it is very important for the teacher to compare the Greek continually with the Latin, a knowledge of which I presume on the part of the pupil who begins the study of Greek.

The general plan of study will be throughout the same as laid down in one of my former papers: "*Teach only what is absolutely necessary, and when it is necessary, and teach it in such a manner that it can be easily understood.*"

This is a point of vital importance, and it is often overlooked by very learned men. I illustrate. I have before me a Greek grammar by a renowned author, and it is considered to be a good grammar, by the mass of testimonials; but the author seems never to have taught Greek to beginners. He gives the headings of the verbs in this way: —

λύω to loose, εἰμί to be, ἵστημι to set, etc.

We know that λύω does not mean to loose, εἰμί does not mean to be, nor ἵστημι to set.

If the first impression of anything is the most lasting, and the hardest to eradicate if it is wrong, we ought to be careful how we make these first impressions; and especially in this country authors ought to be careful, as many a lad has to learn mostly from books.

Another mystery presents itself in the same book, — a mystery it must be for a beginner, though it may be very good for a philologist, and especially for those who know Sanskrit. This is the formation of the present from the simple stem of the verb. It seems as if these nine classes of verbs should be learned in their scientific arrangement, as they are in large print; but I venture to say that out of fifty boys, however smart they may be, not two can study these nine classes of verbs and understand them and apply their knowledge. All the pupil wants to know, is, to know the present, then to give the principal parts, which have to be learned according to a very simple schedule, which can easily be worked out (of their regular verbs the principal parts have to be learned for each individual verb), and if he knows that, he can compete successfully with any one who thinks he is perfectly sure about simple and any other stem. Why, then, not give the present, then a synopsis of the principal parts; or, still better, give a synopsis of all the tenses of verbs, call the attention of the pupils to the formation of each tense, then compare different classes of verbs and let them mark differences in formation? The pupils will have something to think about; they will perceive quicker than we are inclined to think, and they will retain knowledge so gained more certainly than when presented in mystifying statements which are not yet reliable facts.

The more carefully one thinks the less mysteriously he will write and the less scientifically he will teach the elements of a branch of knowledge, as long as the branch of knowledge itself has to be mastered and not the science thereof.

F. H. KIRMAIER.

### SUBTRACTION AND DIVISION.

To perform subtraction by addition: —

Illustration.

748  
623  
—  
125

Solution.

3 + 5 = 8. Place 5 as difference.  
2 + 2 = 4. " 2 "  
6 + 1 = 7. " 1 "

It may happen that one or the other number of the subtrahend is larger than the minuend, then the operation is as follows:—

<i>Illustration.</i>		<i>Solution.</i>
7213	$9 + 4 = 13.$	Place 4 as difference; add 1.
5839	$1 + 3 = 4 + 7 = 11.$	" 7 " " 1.
—	$1 + 8 = 9 + 3 = 12.$	" 3 " " 1.
1374	$1 + 5 = 6 + 1 = 7.$	" 1 " "

No rule required if the operation is understood.

To carry on at the same time the three processes of division, multiplication, and subtraction in division.

#### ILLUSTRATION.

*Divisor. Dividend. Quotient.*

$$31 \overline{) 73241} \quad (2,362.$$

112

194

81

19 Remainder.

The solution is based upon the preceding method of subtraction, and needs therefore no further explanation.

There is no rule required for this operation either, provided it is understood. Where I went to school we practised all operations in arithmetic till we understood them fully. The teachers would explain, but would not give us any rules, and the text-books did not contain any rules; so we had to learn arithmetic the same as a child learns to walk, without rule. And I think we should have scribbled more lustily with our slate pencils if we had known how many rules many a poor child has to learn, because in an evil hour it had come into the mind of some learned man to write a text-book on arithmetic with many rules in it.

F. H. K.

ST. IMIER, SWITZERLAND, Aug. 17, 1874.

*To Editor of "Massachusetts Teacher":*

It may interest you to know a little of the activity and interest that prevails among teachers here; that even in the home where the system of Pestalozzi was originally developed, teachers are agitated by the same questions of disciplining; difference of opinion in regard to means for training teachers; methods of instructions in primary and higher schools; the best means to secure regular attendance; how to reconcile the rights of the parent with those of the state, etc. Education is in a highly advanced state in Switzerland, especially in the Protestant cantons where the system of Pestalozzi has had the fairest trial and produced the best results. The culture of science and literature are held in the highest esteem, and all the educational and disciplinary, scientific and methodical arrangements, beside reaching their special aims, concur to impart to the pupil, in a wonderfully rapid manner, a knowledge of the modern languages. My object, however, in writing you, is, simply to send you a report of the annual Congress of Teachers of French Switzerland. There were five or six hundred members present, besides many foreign teachers from France, Belgium, Germany, and Italy. One word about the situation of St. Imier. It is a beautiful place, rich from the long estab-

lished manufacture of watches, nestled in the pretty valley of Erguel or St. Imier, amongst the spurs of the mountains jutting out from Newchatel, surrounded by wild and cultivated scenery. The town had determined to do fitting honors to its guests. It was gayly decked with banners, evergreens twined into garlands, mottoes, words of welcome; a large tent was placed at the western extremity of the town, where a fine view could be obtained of the valley and the dark mountains that hem it in; speeches of welcome and thanks for the hospitality were made. The exercises of this Convention were opened by an address from M. Bodenheim, the President of the government of Berne, in which he traced the progress of popular instruction in the Jura, and closed with an appeal to teachers to continue the instruction of the youth of their country in conformity with the principles of liberty and progress.

The following questions were then called up for discussion: "What are the means for forming a teacher? Are normal schools absolutely necessary, and in case of the absence of these establishments how can their place be supplied?" Eight papers had been sent in, and after a lively discussion the following resolutions, in substance, were adopted: of the various means proposed for training teachers: (1.) individual study; (2.) teaching in primary schools and higher schools; these means are now insufficient; (3.) employment as assistant teacher during the time the candidate is studying for his profession (this, however, shall not take the place of special studies); (4.) study at the University; (5.) finally, special studies can only attain the end in view, that is, thoroughly qualifying the teacher for his profession. The last resolution set forth the importance of having all the higher academies, the universities, and polytechnic schools accessible to all who propose devoting themselves to secondary instruction. The next question under discussion was: "What are the means under the control of the teacher, best calculated to secure, with obligatory instruction, the most regular attendance at school, while recognizing the rights of the parent?" After a short discussion the result was couched in something like the following: (1.) the necessity of regular attendance; (2.) the rights of the parent which must be considered; (3.) those of the state which are of equal importance, and which would demand the adoption of energetic and effective measures to secure attendance at school. I am unable to state just how this power of the state works to secure regular attendance; but I know that both here and in Germany, in the schools answering to our primary and intermediate schools, the average of attendance is about ninety-eight per cent. After the adoption of a few other resolutions of no general interest, a banquet, and sundry toasts, the Congress adjourned.

Perhaps one word in reference to the Roman remains found in this valley and the vicinity may be of interest. Of course it is well known that after the conquest of the Helvetii by Cæsar, and still later that of the Rhaeti, the Romans constructed magnificent military roads over the great St. Bernard to Bale and over the Splügen to Bregenz. Under the sway of the Romans a flourishing trade sprung, which covered the land with cities, as Aventicum (Avenches) in the Canton de Vaud and Vindonissa at the junction of the Aar, Reuss, and Limmat. There are even traces now of the Romanic language in some parts of Switzerland. The most interesting discovery that has recently been made is in reference to this road, which starting at Avenches took the direction of Soleure (Solodurum "*in Celtis nihil est Solodoro antiquius, unis exceptis Treviris, quarum ego dicta soror*"), passing by Aarberg over the marshy land in the valley of the Aar. It was supposed that the Romans adopted some means to protect this road from the inundations of the river; but there was nothing to confirm this supposition until the recent discovery at Hagneck of a tunnel about nine hundred yards in length, uniting the valley of the Aar with the lake of Brienne. This tunnel is not to be compared of course with that caused to be driven by Vespasian through



the Apennines ; — for the Flamian way is interesting from the fact of its being one of the few subterranean works executed by the Romans in Switzerland. It is pierced in sandstone, and remains just as when finished except the openings at the end which had become blocked up. In the construction of the new tunnel the Roman shafts have been made use of in the excavations. The subject of Roman antiquities becomes exceedingly interesting to one visiting the Rhine, Switzerland, and the Danube, as evidences are constantly before you of the marvellous works constructed by the Romans to protect their frontier ; but I must not pursue the subject further.

R. F. L.

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### *THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION*

HELD its fourteenth annual meeting at Detroit August 4th, 5th, and 6th. There was an attendance of some seven hundred and a membership of about three hundred. It is composed of persons actively engaged in the work of education in all grades, from presidents and professors in our colleges and universities up through the seminaries, academies, High and Grammar schools of all sorts, to the teacher of the primary schools. The word *up* is used here advisedly ; for it is now recognized that instruction is equally important at every stage, and the greatest skill is nowhere so much needed as at the start. Any person interested in education may become a member of this body on payment of two dollars, and one dollar annually thereafter ; and each member is entitled to a volume of the proceedings. The volumes are printed from these annual dues and the proceeds of a limited sale, and have lately contained essays and addresses from the first educators in the land. The last two contained about two hundred and seventy octavo pages each. This is, then, a very liberal body, where all ideas on the subject, both old and new, may be brought forward to stand or fall on their merits in the discussion which they may occasion.

It has been truly remarked that in no other country is there or has there ever been such an association as this — voluntary, each member acting from interest in the cause, at his own expense and often with much labor — able, for a large proportion of its members are at the head of the profession — and covering a broad field, both geographically and in the range of the subjects with which it is concerned. In foreign lands a minister of state may direct, and his subordinates all along to the humblest school-room will execute, just as the pope may nod, and the whole line of prelates, bishops, and priests will obey. Not so here. The authority is at the other end. This peculiarity is at once a power and a weakness. It is a power because each community, each little district, is developed by acting for itself. It is a weakness because the results of experience are not easily made available.

Since schools, and in fact all the other excellent institutions of this country were established, a change has come over the land ; and we now behold, what the fathers could not have anticipated, and what they should neither be blamed nor praised for, since they were not omniscient, viz. institutions established for a people intent upon securing liberty, freedom, right, which must now be adapted to large numbers of a very different sort of people intent

upon something else — wealth, perhaps. One of these institutions is our schools. How, in the changed condition, to secure that kind and degree of popular education which is an essential element in the very being of our nation, is a problem which has given rise to various organizations among teachers. However skilful in the business of teaching one might become, without united action there was no way by which he might learn from the experience of those who had gone before ; and so no progress, no science of teaching, could be attained ; just as no science of Chemistry could have grown up if each experimenter had begun at the bottom. To meet this want, the first, or at least one of the first, associations of educators was the American Institute of Instruction, out of which have grown state, county, and city associations innumerable. At that early day the system of public school education hardly extended beyond New England and the Middle States. The institute, though still vigorous and useful, has therefore now become local ; and the National Association extends from ocean to ocean.

At the late meeting twenty-nine States and Territories were represented. Utah came in and the South held not back. By the way, is n't it here that the Mormon question should be settled ?

The association meets, in general session morning and evening. In the afternoon the work is done in departments : that of Higher Instruction ; the Normal Department ; the Elementary Department, and the Department of Superintendence.

The sessions were opened by prayer. Can that practice be defended when some of the members, probably, do not believe in prayer, and others pray only by rule or by proxy ? Perhaps if nine people in a company wish to hear prayer, the tenth, so long as he is committed to no part of the exercise, would wait quietly, out of politeness ; but if he wishes to push his opinions into prominence, and dictate to the nine, they might claim the same right for their opinion and wish which he claims for his. In his opening address, Pres. S. H. White, of Peoria, Ill., alluded to the unequal educational advantages of the country and the city. Parents move to the cities to educate their children ; but the children do not return to the country. This inequality he claimed has to do with the unrest shown by strikes and labor reforms. It is the same question which we discuss under the name of half-mill tax. What the city owes to the country must soon be recognized. The first exercise on the programme was a report of the committee on Upper Schools appointed at the Elmira meeting by the chairman, Geo. P. Hays, of Pa. This report claims that "just now the rage is for establishing colleges which are not needed, and overlooking Academies which are." The weak point in our system is between the Grammar School and the College. We need more good High Schools and Academies. In the discussion, which followed the report, it was generally conceded that public High Schools are superior for fitting boys for colleges. The evening lecture was by Wm. R. Abbott, of Bellevue, Va., on the Profession of the Teacher. Pres. A. D. White's paper on a National University attacked fiercely sectarian colleges, and aroused the dozen or twenty presidents of such colleges, who were in attendance. A let-

ter from Pres. Eliot defined his position as simply opposed to the establishment of a university supported by the General Government. He has been erroneously quoted as in opposition to all public schools and government control of education. The Association passed a resolution in favor of a National University, and a committee was appointed to bring the subject to the attention of Congress. The paper by Dr. Clarke, of Boston, on the Building of a Brain, was exceedingly interesting and instructive. The following extracts are from the "Globe's" report:—

"Two duties, then, are imposed upon our civilization. Two problems are presented to our educators. The duties are, first, to secure the perpetuation of the race in America; and, secondly, to provide for the survival of the fittest here also. The problems are, first, to develop the individual to the highest degree; and, secondly, to obtain this development without interfering with the perpetuation of the best. In other words, humanity demands, and our education must give, both the highest development of the individual and the perpetuation of the fittest. . . .

"Now, unless men and women both have brains the nation will go down. As much brain is needed to govern a household as to command a ship; as much to guide a family aright as to guide a Congress aright; as much to do the least and the greatest of woman's work, as to do the least and the greatest of man's work. Moreover, in both sexes, the brain is the conservator of strength and prolonger of life. The force evolved from it, more than the force evolved from any other organ, enables men and women to bear the burdens and perform the duties of life; and with its aid, better than with any surgery, can they overcome the 'ills that flesh is heir to.' But the organs, whose normal growth and evolution lead up to the brain, are not the same in men and women. Consequently, their brains, though alike in microscopic structure, have infused into them different, though equally excellent qualities.

"... The brain must be built in connection with the building of the rest of the body, remembering constantly that the imperfections of the latter reflect themselves upon the former. Now, in one sense, the process of brain building is alike for the two sexes; in another sense it is different. It is the same for both, inasmuch as the process, which evolves the best possible brain, by means of appropriate brain exercise, including cerebration, out of the underlying organization, is alike in the two sexes.

"The process is different for the two sexes, in so far as there are any organs or sets of organs in the structure of the one sex that are not in the structure of the other. Provided the organization of both sexes is normal and all their functions normally performed, the same sort of brain work will develop the brain of each. But, if the methods of education render abnormal any part of the body, or interfere with any function, there will not only be damage to the part disturbed, and friction in its function, but the brain will suffer just in proportion to the importance of the organs disturbed, and the amount of the disturbance.

"At this point the speaker stated that he used the word brain as correlative of mind, not from a materialistic point of view, but because we can only know the mind through the brain.

"Build the brain aright, then, said Dr. Clarke, and the Divine Spirit will inhabit and use it. Build it wrongly, and the Devil will employ it. The development of the mind, then, means practically the development of the brain; and the building of a brain is a part of education. A wise and appropriate system of education, in its efforts to build a brain, either for the male or the female organization, will endeavor

to aid and imitate the process by which Nature performs the same task. Herein physiology can render infinite service to education—a service that the latter cannot afford to refuse. . . . It may be that we have no conception of what the human brain will yet attain to. Compared now as an instrument with what it will be ages hence, when both men and women are appropriately educated, when brains shall be built out of masculine and feminine organizations that have been appropriately trained, and from which hereditary evils have been eliminated, century after century, by the survival of the fittest—the brain of to-day, compared as an instrument with that brain of the future, fit for the use of a god, is as rude and imperfect as the lenses of two hundred years ago are, compared with the microscopes of the present day. . . .

“The method that builds a man’s, builds, also, a woman’s brain. But this identity of method in cerebral architecture implies, or rather necessitates, a difference in education between the sexes, just so far as there is a difference in organization between them, and no further. Identical education of the sexes is, in the last analysis, equivalent to an unjust discrimination between them: their appropriate and consequently varied education is equivalent to the same method of brain-building. The object of education for the sexes is the same. The physiological principle which should guide their education—that is, the appropriate development of the whole organization, so as to evolve the best brain—is the same. The application of this principle to home, social, and school life demands diversity of management. The same law, but diversity of application.

“The doctor, in stating the impossibility of progress without accepting and respecting the difference of sex, said,—

“The best quality, noblest power, and supreme beauty of the two sexes grow out of their dissimilarity, not out of their identity. We should cultivate the difference of the sexes, not try to hide or abolish it; for nature has selected difference of sex by which to give humanity its choicest beauty and quality. The perfection of one sex is unattainable by the other. Each loves and reverences in the other what it cannot attain itself, and despises any imitation. Let education respect and cultivate nature’s selected difference.”

Prof. Orton, of Vassar College, gave the result of his experience in the higher education of women. He thinks the young ladies of Vassar can “master the more difficult studies as easily as young men. The ellipsis in that sentence may be a little doubtful. He scouted the idea of co-education on the ground of economy. “Were I a woman,” he said, “I would repel the argument as an insult.” Prof. J. K. Hosmer of Missouri, who followed on a similar subject, the co-education of the sexes, wound up as follows:—

“In fine, it is the writer’s belief that to deny to women the highest culture is unjust—is indeed disastrous; that for economical reasons this highest education makes necessary co-education. The co-education in universities is possible, even to some extent desirable, on account of a certain good influence which the sexes exert upon each other. That co-education is a matter of no difficulty we are not to believe, much less that it is the power which is to produce straightway a millennium of purity and good order. What the circumstances of American life seem to thrust upon us, it is not well to reject utterly. It is possible, on the other hand, to embrace the stranger with a hospitality and good nature quite too careless. “He who flies from and is afraid of everything,” says Aristotle, “is a coward; and he who fears nothing at



all, but goes boldly at everything, becomes rash. The wise man shuns both success and defeat; he seeks for the mean and chooses that."

Dr. J. U. Hodgkins, Deputy Superintendent of Instruction in Ontario, gave an account of education in that province, which has some excellent features.

There is hardly time to do more than mention the exercises of the several departments.

#### HIGHER INSTRUCTION.

In calling this section to order, President Read, of Missouri, remarked "it is falsely charged that college men abstained from discussion relative to the higher education. If it ever was true it certainly is not now." The first paper was by Dr. Peabody, of Cambridge, on "The Elective System in Colleges and Universities." This was one of the ablest and most thorough papers ever read before the Association. Fifty years ago the college graduate was considered equal to any emergency, equally conversant with any branch of studies that any profession was likely to demand of him. But it is far different now, when the division of study has become so marked as to require a special course for nearly every vocation in life.

In Harvard, the experiment of elective studies has worked well. This was the almost universal testimony from colleges where it had been tried. Prof. Charles S. Venable, of the University of Virginia, read a paper on the plan of that institution, in which the elective system has been adopted.

The Hon. J. W. Hoyt, of Madison, Wisconsin, read a paper on a National University, narrating what had been done by a committee appointed by the Association to consider that subject a few years ago. The speaker was particularly severe in his remarks upon the report of the committee at the last annual meeting at Elmira, N. Y., and the course of President Eliot in opposing the establishing of a National University. He took up the objections to the bill as drafted for such a university one by one, and replied to them, arguing that the objections bore against the details of the proposed system and not against the principle upon which it was based. He closed with a somewhat elaborate argument on the power, duty, and privilege of the National Government in its relations to the higher education.

There was a paper by Prof. Butler, of Madison, Wis., on "Classical Studies in Higher Institutions of Education." He favored the pursuit of these studies.

Dr. Patterson, of the University of Kentucky, spoke on the subject of University Endowments, alluding in a pointed way to the positions of Dr. McCosh, last year.

#### NORMAL DEPARTMENT.

The subjects considered here were obtained by the Pres., Mr. Moose, of Cortland, N. Y., from answers to a circular asking each principal of a Normal School in the United States to suggest one. Collectively considered they may not inaptly be termed "An Elaboration of the Profession of Teaching." This, the president thought, must be done mainly by the Normal Schools.

The first paper on the programme was on "What Constitutes a Consistent Course of study for Normal Schools?" by Prof. John Ogden, of Ohio. He recommended that two courses be established in Normal Schools, distinct in nature, yet blended in practice,—the academic and the professional; and that the academic be studied with strict reference to the Normal. "Training Schools in connection with Normal Schools" was the next paper, by J. C. Greenough, of R. I., which was followed by "What are the Essentials of a Profession," by Larkin Dunton, of the Boston Normal School,—both valuable papers,— "Method and Manner," by Prof. Louis Soldan, of St. Louis, Mo. was the final paper. At the close the following was adopted:—

*Resolved*, That a committee of three be appointed to formulate and print a course of professional instruction, to be discussed at our next meeting. The following gentlemen were appointed: Bellows, of Mich., Jones, of Ind., and Dunton, of Mass.

#### ELEMENTARY INSTRUCTION.

Here valuable papers were read by E. E. White, of Ohio, on "Several Problems in Graded School Management," Miss H. A. Keeler, of Cleveland, on "Elementary Instruction in Language," by J. W. Armstrong, of Fredonia, N. Y., on "Instruction in Science in Elementary Schools," and by Mrs. A. C. Martin, of Boston, on "What Shall we Attempt in our Elementary School." Spending less time in geography, arithmetic, and grammar, she would supplement these studies with a more extended study of history, going outside of American history, and with books which are worth reading.

The Department of Superintendence held its principal business meeting six months ago in Washington. The chief business transacted here was the discussion on the report of a committee on statistical forms.

The success of this meeting of the Association must not be judged by this imperfect account. The volume of proceedings will be issued in December, and contain the valuable papers and the discussions. The people of Detroit entertained with true Western hospitality. The bells were rung, the public buildings illuminated, a reception was given by Governor Bagley and another by Senator Chandler, and an excursion on the lake was tendered all, in honor of the Association. All these and the friendly interchange of thought leave pleasant memories of Detroit. The New England party came home over the Lakes; and for cool, quiet rest, for the dear delight of travelling without effort and with no discomfort, for a book, a chat, or an easy game with pleasant company, go over the Lakes in sunshiny days and starlight nights in the snug little steamer "St. Albans," with a merry crowd of teachers, and stop at Niagara, and at Alexander Bay among the Thousand Islands.

M.

*MORALS AND MANNERS.*

MANY teachers have wished for a text-book in ethics adapted to the intellectual capacity of the children in the higher grades of our ward schools. Such a want Mr. A. M. Gow has attempted to supply by his work entitled "Good Morals and Gentle Manners."

The book has some very good features. It is throughout written in a style that can be easily understood by children, and anecdotes are frequently introduced, many of them of such a character as to interest and impress young readers.

He divides the work into three parts: the Moral Law, the Municipal Law, and the Social Law. So far, the classification is intelligible; but beyond this it is difficult to discover any orderly arrangement. Many of the special duties are well treated, but their relations to one another are not clearly brought out. What is the logical sequence, in five consecutive chapters entitled "Filial Obedience," "Business," "Fidelity," "Amusements," "The Poor"? One would not expect to find a chapter headed Fidelity devoted to the presentation of various arguments in favor of apprenticeship; nor can an ordinary mind detect the propriety of inserting in a discourse on The Cultivated Voice two pages upon introductions. Mr. Gow's quotations are not always applicable to the subject under discussion. When speaking of the folly and wickedness of becoming surety for another at the risk of one's own business, he quotes, "The wicked borroweth and payeth not again," a sentence referring rather to the borrower than the lender.

There are, however, still graver faults in the volume before us. The author gives great prominence to motives which are by no means the highest. He begins the book with a chapter on Good Society, which, in justice to him it must be said, he defines as "the society of the good." He then says that "these lessons in goodness and politeness are necessary if we would enter good society." It is true that other and better reasons for right conduct are stated in various places afterwards, but it is certainly unwise to begin a treatise on morals with the enunciation of an essentially selfish principle.

When Mr. Gow reaches the consideration of why a thing is right or wrong, he is sometimes contented with referring to the Scriptures, finding there a precept that applies to the question, and then passing on to some other point. For instance, in the chapter on Evidence we find the following sentence: "As it is written in the moral law 'Thou shalt not bear false witness against thy neighbor,' every one is under obligation to speak the truth." A teacher of ethics should lead his pupils to think for themselves on these subjects; to discover wherein a proposed course of conduct is right or wrong, fitting or unfitting; and an instructor who would have them rely on authority, however high, is, in our opinion, failing to perform the task which he has undertaken.

SYRACUSE.

## J NTELLIGENCE.

WANTED, the volumes of the "Mass. Teacher" for 1856, 1857, 1858, 1859, 1865; also two *numbers* each for February, April, and November, 1865, and for March, 1871. A liberal price will be paid for the above, it being desirable to have as many complete sets as possible. We hope that teachers who may happen to have any of the above to spare, will oblige us by making it known to the publishers, A. Mudge & Son, 34 School St.

THE ANNUAL MEETING OF THE MASS. TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION. By vote of the Directors of our Association, our next Annual Meeting will be held, like the last, at Worcester, on the Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday of Christmas week, and the exercises will be, as then, one half-day in sectional, and the remainder of the time in general sessions.

Although the time and place are not convenient to all, yet, after a full discussion at the meeting of the Directors, they appeared to be open to fewer objections than any others which were proposed.

It is desired to make the programme of exercises both interesting and profitable, and to secure this end, the Committee of Arrangements would be glad to receive from members of the Association, suggestions of topics or questions which they would like to have discussed at the meeting, which should be sent *immediately* to the President, Mr. A. G. Boyden, Bridgewater, Mass. The programme of the meeting, with railroad and hotel arrangements, will be announced in the December number of the "Teacher."

ALFRED BUNKER, Sec'y.

PHILLIPS ACADEMY, ANDOVER. Mr. J. M. Tyler, Teacher of the Junior Class, Classical Department, has resigned to continue his studies, and Mr. D. Y. Comstock, Principal of the High School, Lonsdale, R. I., has been elected his successor. Mr. T. A. Mills, a graduate of the Scientific Department, has been appointed tutor in that Department. This addition to the corps of teachers has been rendered necessary by the large number of students in attendance this term.

In justice to the author of the poem in our last, we make the following corrections:—

3d Verse. For "The Locust rasping still his busy, restless wing," read "The Locust rasping still his busy wing."

10th Verse. For "To youth's bright revel and with forward lean," read "To youth's bright revel and then forward lean."

15th Verse. For "His rhythmic, triune being, — body, mind, and soul," read "This rhythmic, triune being, — body, mind, and soul."

18th Verse. For "In lazier wisdom but with grace her own," read "In easier wisdom but with grace her own."

22d Verse. For "'T is sweet to hear and ask one fostering mother," read "'T is sweet to hear and tell our fostering mother."

23d Verse. For "To say how bright and how undimmed the way," read "To say how bright and how undimmed the ray."



## Books.

**LITTLE CLASSICS.** Edited by Rossiter Johnson. Published by James R. Osgood & Co.

The first volume contains gems from Hawthorne, Griffin, Greenwood, Bret Harte, E. E. Hale, and De Quincey. Each of these is a "work of art, which, embodying a sacred principle or a living idea, condenses its plot, its moral, and its effective climax into the limits of a single sitting." The book does not consist of "elegant extracts," broken from the quarry and exhibited as specimens. Each story is complete, differing only from the conventional novel by dispensing with "its caravan of character, and its long bewilderment of detail."

**LANGUAGE LESSONS; An Introductory Grammar and Composition for Intermediate and Grammar grades.** By Wm. Swinton. Published by Harper & Brothers.

**ELEMENTS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.** An Introduction to the Study of Grammar and Composition. By Bernard Bigsby. Published by Ginn Brothers.

The rapid and extensive introduction of the above-named books into our grammar schools indicates that our teachers at last have determined to teach their pupils to "speak and write the language correctly," instead of devoting all the time allotted to grammar, to a technical system of analysis and parsing. In 1864 the president of the National Teacher's Association, — himself the author of a grammar, — said, if it were not for being unpopular, I would say that a little book, called the "Grammar of Composition," is the best book we now have to teach pupils a correct use of the English Language. Notwithstanding this high recommendation, however, the book had but a very limited sale.

The same may be said of the best features of most of the grammars published ten or twenty years ago.

Thus in Greene's series, where a great many written exercises were given, they were almost uniformly omitted by the majority of teachers, and the pupils were kept upon oral analysis and parsing.

It is an evidence of progress that teachers are now calling for and using these books.

"Swinton's Language Lessons" has recently been introduced into the Boston schools.

"Bigsby's Introduction to the study of Grammar and Composition," has been introduced, we understand, in many places, and we have no doubt that an intelligent use of either book will do much to take away the reproach which justly attaches to grammar as a school exercise.

**THE ERA OF THE PROTESTANT REVOLUTION.** By Frederic Seebohm; and **THE CRUSADES,** by George W. Cox. Published by Scribner, Armstrong & Co.

These are the first two volumes of a series of "Epochs in History," edited by Edward E. Morris. The series will comprise, in addition to the above, "The Thirty Years' War;" "The Beginning of the Middle Ages;" "The Norman Kings and the Feudal System;" "The Early Plantagenets;" "Edward III.;" "The Houses of Lancaster and York;" "The Age of Elizabeth;" "The Stuarts and the Puritan Revolution;" "The Fall of the Stuarts;" "The Age of Anne;" "Frederick the Great and the Seven Years' War;" and "The War of American Independence."

It will be seen that the epochs selected will form an interesting and instructive series, embracing the most important topics of mediæval and modern times. They are issued in neat volumes of convenient size, and will constitute quite an historical library for family use. We predict a large sale, and what is more, that they will be *read*.

**TEACHER'S MANUAL FOR FREEHAND DRAWING IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS.** By Walter Smith. Published by James R. Osgood & Co.

The introduction of drawing into our public schools, we regard as the most important step yet taken, to make them contribute directly to the industrial pursuits in which the great mass of pupils

will be engaged. It has not been, however, unattended with difficulty. Very few of our teachers have had any systematic training in drawing, and in our cities, it has been found necessary to give them instruction, in order that they may impart it to their pupils. As this would be impracticable in many places, Prof. Smith has not only, in this Manual, indicated the work to be done, but has told how to do it, in such a manner that any intelligent teacher of a primary school may secure satisfactory results, even though she may have had no other instruction in drawing. Not that such instruction, when it can be obtained, is not desirable; in view of the present requirements, every teacher is bound by interest and duty to obtain a mastery of the principles and practice of drawing, not less than of reading, grammar, arithmetic, etc. A careful study and use of this Manual will probably show most teachers that drawing is of much more educational value than they supposed.

Drawing from dictation, for example, will put the intellectual faculties to a test sufficiently severe, while the description of figures, in clear and definite language, will furnish the best possible exercise in the use of language. Like all really good books, it contains many suggestions which are essential to the highest success in teaching any branch of study.

#### BOOKS RECEIVED.

**HISTORY OF THE GERMAN EMPERORS AND THEIR CONTEMPORARIES.** Translated from the German and compiled from authentic sources. By Elizabeth Peake. Published by J. B. Lippincott & Co.

**A COMPLETE ALGEBRA.** Designed for use in schools, academies, and colleges. By Joseph Ficklin. Published by Iverson, Blakeman, Taylor & Co.

**OUTLINES OF THE WORLD'S HISTORY; ANCIENT, MEDIEVAL, AND MODERN.** By Wm. Swinton. Published by Iverson, Blakeman, Taylor & Co.

**A MANUAL OF METALLURGY.** By Wm. Henry Greenwood. Published by G. P. Putnam's Sons.

**COMFORT'S GERMAN PRIMER.** Introductory to the German Series. By Geo. F. Comfort. Published by Harper & Brothers.

**THE GERMAN AND ENGLISH INTERPRETER;** containing extracts from the best German Works, with a literal and a free interlinear translation. By Herman Bokum. Published by Schaefer and Koradi, Phila.